



Topic Tests

for AS / A Level Year 1 AQA

Microeconomics

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Teacher's Introduction

This resource consists of a set of Topic Tests that have been written to support the teaching of A Level AQA Year 1 Microeconomics. It allows teachers and students to check their understanding and consolidate knowledge of each part of the AQA specification. In each Topic Test there is a mixture of numerical, multiple-choice, short-answer and essay-style questions of a variety of different difficulties. There are 9 Topic Tests in this resource, following the topics of the A Level specifications.

Importantly, each Topic Test is accompanied by a set of detailed answers that could be handed out to students as a basis for 'model' answers in the examination. Note that although the Topic Test questions aren't always in exam format, the questions within have been written carefully with the intention of testing the range of Assessment Objectives and often borrow aspects that are similar to those in the exam.

Most of the case studies in the Topic Tests include up-to-date economic data and scenarios that should place economic theory in recent history, enrich students' general knowledge of the subject, and prepare students for the Data Response aspects of the examination. Moreover, the resource also includes plenty of opportunities for students to practise the Quantitative Skills outlined in the Appendix of the AQA specification.

Most Topic Tests contain 30–40 marks worth of questions, although some tests are shorter to cover each specification topic appropriately according to its scope. It is intended that the longer Topic Tests will take about one hour to complete and should be presented to students *after* teaching the parts of the specification that are to be tested. However, the Topic Tests could also be given to students as homework in order to consolidate their knowledge outside of the classroom, or certain aspects could be used as a supplement to in-class learning.

It is important to note that this resource should be used as a complement to other resources such as textbooks and practice exam papers, and not in isolation. These Topic Tests include plenty of explanation of the theory in the mark scheme, but students should be encouraged to access information as widely as possible.

Terminology note

Where the AQA specification used specific terminology we have followed their example. However, there are some terms that students may not have necessarily come across:

- Ceteris paribus, the Latin term meaning 'all other things being equal', we have judged to be implied by the specification, and worth testing at this level.
- The AQA specification refers to 'production possibility diagrams' and 'boundaries'. Here we have used the term 'production possibility curve' (students may also come across 'frontier').
- The answers occasionally refer to MPB, MSC, MPC, etc. – matching these to D and S curves where appropriate. This is beyond the AS specification, so if you are teaching the AS only, or teaching the A Level in a co-teachable order, and you are giving these answers out for self-marking, please make sure students are aware that the concept of the margin is only on the A Level specification.

It is hoped that this resource, as well as offering support for teaching the essential elements of the AQA microeconomics specification, will help students fully prepare for their A Level examinations. The economic environment is constantly in flux, and full of fascinating current issues. This resource attempts to share some of these current issues as a basis for teaching in the most interesting way possible, meanwhile encouraging further study from the next generation of Economists!

Happy teaching!

October 2019

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Mark Breakdown Test-by-test

Topic Test	
4.1.1	
4.1.3.1–2	
4.1.3.3–4	
4.1.3.5–6	
4.1.4	
4.1.5	
4.1.8.1–3	
4.1.8.4–6	
4.1.8.8–9	

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4.1.5 Competitive and Concentrated Markets

1. In Economics, we typically assume firms are aiming to maximise profits. Explain the profit maximisation objective and why a firm might choose that objective.
2. Explain what is meant by a *perfectly competitive* market.
3. Explain what is meant by 'barriers to entry'.
4. Table 1 shows data on the UK supermarket industry.



Table 1

Supermarket	Market Share
Tesco	27.6%
Sainsbury's	16.1%
Asda	15.7%
Morrisons	10.4%
Co-op	6.1%
Aldi	6.8%

Calculate the 3-firm concentration ratio.

It is fairly rare to find a market that is a 'pure' monopoly. According to the strict definition, a monopoly is a market in which there is only one seller. In August 2015, Takeda Pharmaceuticals acquired the rights to the drug Daraprim, which is sometimes used to treat malaria. The price of the drug from \$13.50 to \$750 per vial, an almost 5,500% increase. Takeda has been accused of abusing its monopoly power to the detriment of healthcare systems and patients internationally.



5. Explain the factors that influence the degree of monopoly power in an industry.
6. Evaluate **one** advantage and **one** disadvantage of a monopoly.



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4.1.8.1–3 The Market Mechanism

1. Explain the role of the price mechanism in a market-based economy.
2. Explain **one** advantage and **one** disadvantage of the price mechanism.
3. What is meant by market failure?
4. If market failure occurs, will production be efficient or inefficient? Why?
5. Market failure results in...
 - A The under-production of certain products.
 - B The over-production of certain products.
 - C The over-consumption of some products and under-consumption of others.
 - D All of the above.

Tourists to the UK's national parks tend to leave more than just their footprints in the parks. They intentionally or accidentally, leave behind all sorts of waste – from plastic food wrappers to nappies. Litter is unsightly, and it ruins other people's enjoyment of the beautiful countryside. It's easy to think that a single piece of litter is not a significant problem, but if everyone does it, it can quickly turn our national parks into large-scale rubbish dumps.

6. Illustrate, and explain, how leaving litter behind can cause a market failure.
7. Explain the difference between *complete* and *partial* market failure.
8. What is meant by a 'public good'?
9. Identify which of the following are public goods.

(a)	Cinemas
(b)	Healthcare
(c)	Air
(d)	Bananas
(e)	Lighthouses
(f)	Timber
(g)	Fireworks
(h)	Electricity

10. 'Excludability' refers to which of the following concepts?
 - A It is possible to prevent people that haven't paid for the good from consuming it.
 - B It is impossible for two individuals to consume the good simultaneously.
 - C It is possible to reject the consumption of the good when it is provided.
 - D It is possible for two individuals to consume the good simultaneously.
11. What is meant by the non-rivalry of a public good?
12. (a) If something is non-rejectable, what is true of this type of good?
 (b) State **two** examples of a good that is non-rejectable.

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13. Quasi-public goods – meaning ‘almost’ public goods – are goods that are either non-rivalrous but excludable.
- (a) Identify and explain an example of each type of quasi-public good.
 - (b) Do you think market failure could still occur in the case of a quasi-public good?
14. Explain, using one or more examples, how technological change can alter the

It should be of no surprise that national defence is an important talking point in the news. We often hear of measures that are being undertaken by governments to improve the security of their citizens. Intelligence gathering, for example, the NSA, for instance, is a controversial agency that monitors the communication of American citizens in order to protect against security threats. In the UK, the Trident nuclear submarine defence system is a controversial system for protecting the UK. However, systems of national defence are public goods in the sense that access to defence by one civilian doesn't prevent another from being simultaneously defended. Moreover, people don't have a choice in whether they're defended or not once a system is in place. Of course, people can object to government spending on national defence, but this is not the same as a rejection of the good itself. Finally, it's impossible to exclude certain individuals from national defence. If the defence system prevents attacks on a national scale then people are defended, whether they've paid into the system or not. It would not be credible for a government to defend certain individuals in society.



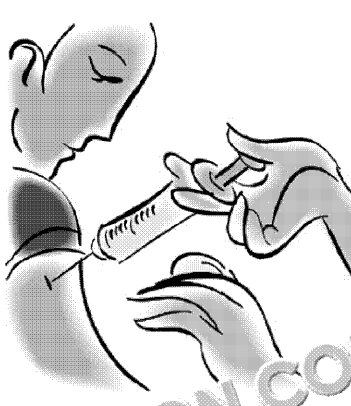
15. Evaluate the case for government provision of a national defence system.

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4.1.8.4–6 Positive and Negative Externalities in Consumption

1. Identify which type of externality each of the following images represents.

<p>(a) (Industrial pollution)</p> 		<p>(c) (Smoking)</p>
<p>(b) (Vaccinations)</p>		<p>(d) (R&D)</p>

Imagine Samsung – the Korean electronics manufacturer – enters a region in the UK and sets up a tech production plant. It invests heavily in training the local workforce in modern technology and provides additional voluntary training for those that wish to specialise in highly skilled areas. Samsung's investment in education and training has advantages for other manufacturers in the region as they're able to employ pre-trained workers from Samsung. Moreover, Samsung's investment in training has far-reaching benefits for society as a whole because a more productive workforce leads to economic growth and social cohesion.

2. Using information from the extract above and a diagram, explain the externalities of Samsung's investment in training.
3. Explain the reason why the classification of a 'merit' good depends on a value judgement.
4. Using information from the extract and a suitable diagram, evaluate whether Samsung's investment in training is considered a demerit good.
5. (a) What is meant by a 'demerit good'?
- (b) What role does imperfect information play in existence of demerit goods?
6. 'Homoeconomic man', the 'economic human', is traditionally assumed to make perfectly rational decisions.

Explain, using an appropriate example, how imperfect information can affect consumer behaviour.

7. (a) Explain what is meant by geographical immobility of labour.
- (b) Explain how immobility of factors of production can lead to market failure.

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4.1.8.9–10 Government Intervention and Government Failure

- What is the rationale for government intervention in markets?
- Identify a potential government intervention method that could be effective following scenarios.

	Scenario
(a)	Fossil-fuel-powered automobiles were a necessity in past decades, that means electric-powered vehicles are affordable and less environmentally friendly than their fossil-fuel counterparts. However, less people are purchasing electric cars than the government had hoped.
(b)	Infrastructure is essential to the functioning of any economy. Without transportation networks, we would only be able to purchase things incredibly close to one's home. However, it is difficult for private firms to provide certain transportation networks because they often function as public goods.
(c)	Agricultural commodities tend to fluctuate in price according to the weather. If much of a crop is harvested, there will be an excess of supply and the price of the crop would be less than expected, and vice versa. However, farmers' uncertainty about future prices of their crops leads them to delay investments that could increase productivity.
(d)	In the second half of the twentieth century, many Asian economies opened up to international trade and have seen dramatic increases in their rates of economic growth, although the macroeconomy is generally performing well in these countries, workers are being paid nominal wages for their labour. In Bangladesh, factory workers take home about £25 per month, but their living costs are about £45 per month.
(e)	Weapons are instruments of death. While it is morally acceptable for law enforcement to have access to weapons, weapons in the hands of the wrong people are not. In 1966, Charles Whitman climbed to the top of the University of Texas Tower and aimed at innocent university students with a high-powered sniper rifle. However, since that incident there have been numerous high-school shootings across the USA and the country's homicide rate is the highest of any developed nation.
(f)	Consumers, unaware of the serious health risks of consuming agricultural products treated with synthetic pesticides, have been over-consuming them. In the UK, cancer rates are increasing.

Pollution has reached a record high in the UK. The UK government feels that there is a market failure in the renewable energy sources. Households could benefit from installing solar panels which could bring down the cost of their electricity bills in an environment where the tariffs are continually increasing. However, there are external benefits of households installing solar panels including reductions in pollution and sustainability for future generations. The UK government gives cash-in-hand subsidies for households that wish to install solar panels on their roofs.

- Illustrate the market failure that is outlined in the extract.
 - Analyse the likely effect of the government's intervention on the market.
 - What is the opportunity cost of the government's intervention?
 - Identify an alternative way the government could intervene to increase the use of renewable energy sources.
- 'Alcoholism has a negative effect on society. Therefore, the government should introduce a minimum unit price for alcohol.'
Evaluate the effectiveness of minimum unit prices as a method to counteract alcoholism.
- What is meant by 'government failure'?
- Identify and explain **three** possible causes of government failure.

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Answers

4.1.1 Economic Methodology and the Economic Problem

1. A 'social' science is an academic discipline which focuses on the scientific study of society.
[2 marks for a clear explanation of what is meant by a 'social science'; 1 mark for an answer which conveys the general meaning]
2. A 'natural' scientist is able to conduct experiments in order to test their hypotheses. Economists are unable to conduct experiments. It would not be possible for an economist to change the value of the exchange rate. Instead, an economist creates a model and tests changes to the model.
[2 marks for a clear explanation of the difference between an economist and a natural scientist; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]
3. **A** – Only 'A' is an example of a positive statement because it is a testable statement. Statements B and C involve some value judgements about how things ought to be and so are normative.
[1 mark for correct answer]
4. The government's policy decision to pursue an inflation rate of 2.0% is an example of a positive statement and involves an implicit value judgement of what the UK's inflation rate should be.
[2 marks for a clear explanation of how the government's policy involves a value judgement; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]
5. **B** – The central purpose of economic activity is the production of goods and services to satisfy human needs. Note that economics is concerned about the minimisation of excess production ('economise') but it is not the central purpose of economic activity.
[1 mark for correct response]
6.
 1. What should be produced?
 2. How much should be produced?
 3. For whom should it be produced?*[1 mark per correct response]*
7. (a) The four factors of production are: *land, labour, capital, and entrepreneurship*.
[1 mark for each correctly identified factor of production]
(b) Land's reward is rent – the return for ownership of land and natural resources. Labour's reward is wages – the return on time invested in productive activity. Capital's reward is interest – the return on investment. Finally, entrepreneurship reward is profit – the return for risk.
[1 mark for each correctly identified reward to the factors of production]
8. The 'economic problem' refers to the situation that arises in which an economy's resources are insufficient in being able to satisfy the unlimited number of wants of economic agents. This is referred to as the problem of 'scarcity'.
[2 marks for clear explanation of the economic problem; 1 mark for an answer which conveys the general meaning]
9. **B** – Economists make assumptions in order to simplify their models. It would be unrealistic to include all the different factors that could affect an economic model, and, even if they could, they would change constantly. Therefore, instead of taking into account everything, economists make assumptions that are *generally* true, and can build models of the economy that are true on average.
[1 mark for correct response]

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10. 'Ceteris paribus' is a Latin phrase that translates as 'other things being equal' or 'constant'. It would be almost impossible for economists to analyse a specific change in the macroeconomic environment without having to consider that other factors could also change. Therefore, in order to isolate the effect of a single factor, economists tend to adopt the ceteris paribus assumption – e.g. if investment increases, aggregate demand will increase, ceteris paribus.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the significance of the ceteris paribus assumption for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

11. Scarcity forces economic agents to make choices because the nature of having finite resources means that a limited set of wants can be satisfied. Needs are infinite, so using our resources for the consumption of one thing means not using them for something else. Agents consider their limited resources and decide what basket of goods and services they would like to consume. Individuals, therefore, must prioritise their wants. The first – often their 'needs' – and then make choices about which wants to satisfy. If there was no scarcity, then people would never be forced to make choices about production and consumption. Economics wouldn't exist as a subject.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how scarcity forces choices to be made – i.e. infinite wants and limited set of resources]

12. An 'opportunity cost' is the value of the *next-best alternative forgone* arising from a particular course of action. Whenever we decide to pursue some action – e.g. studying Economics at university – we forgo the benefits that would have arisen from all other possible decisions – e.g. studying Business at university, Maths at university, but also other options such as seeking employment instead. The opportunity cost of a decision is only the benefit that would have arisen from the 'next-best' option.

[2 marks for clear definition of an opportunity cost – the idea of a value placed on the next-best alternative central to the definition, and the idea that all decisions involve a trade-off but only one alternative is chosen – i.e. only one opportunity cost]

13. The production possibility curve (PPC), or frontier, is a graphical representation of the maximum combination of goods and services (e.g. consumer and capital goods, apples and oranges) that can be produced within a given time period by employing an economy's fixed factors of production.

[2 marks for any correct definition of the PPC]

14. The PPC shifts outward whenever the productive potential of an economy improves. If a country could increase the amount of output given an economy's inputs, we would see the PPC shift outward. This would hold for investments in similar capital goods. Likewise, the PPC could shift inward – e.g. if a large oil reserve was found. However, anything that damages the productive potential of an economy leads the PPC to shift inward – e.g. a civil war, or natural disaster.

[1 mark for identifying factors causing an outward shift in the PPC – anything that increases the productive potential of an economy; 1 mark for identifying factors causing the PPC to shift inward – anything that decreases the productive potential of an economy]

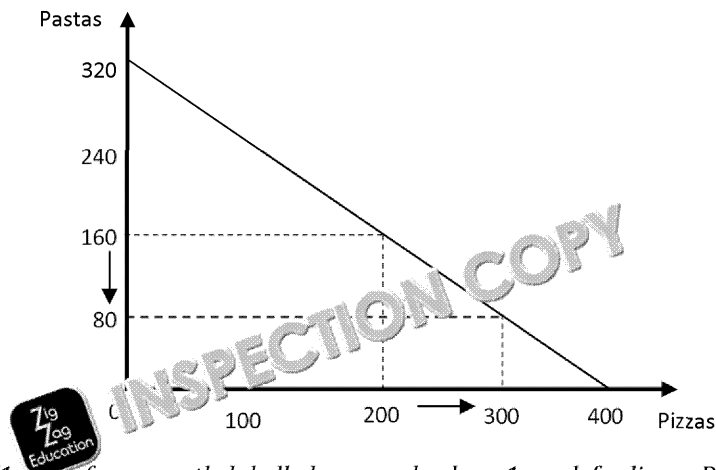
15. A, B, and C are all productively efficient because they are all situated on the production possibility frontier. Remember, the PPF shows the combination of two products that could be produced if all resources are *fully and efficiently* employed. Therefore, A, B and C are productively efficient. Whether something is allocatively efficient depends ultimately on whether the combination of goods and services matches people's preferences. Thus, either A, B or C could be allocatively efficient, but this depends on the judgements about the desirability of the combination of goods and services.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the difference between productive and allocative efficiency for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

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16. (a)



[1 mark for correctly labelled axes and values, 1 mark for linear PPC, and 1 mark for production trade-off is not one-for-one. Note that students can label the y-axis vice versa), but the slope must show the relative productive capacity in favour of pizzas.]

- (b) (i) Scarcity is represented via any point *outside* of the PPC for this economy – this represents the production combinations that would be possible given unlimited resources, and so points outside of this space represent the limited resources.
- (ii) Productive efficiency is represented via any point *along* the PPC – this is because, if the economy is utilising its available resources along this curve, it would not be possible to produce more of one good without sacrificing any of the other. The curve shows the ‘maximum combinations’ of output.
- (iii) Inefficiency is represented via any point *inside* the PPC – this is because, if the economy is producing inside the curve, it is possible to produce more of one good without sacrificing any of the other. This indicates that resources are being inefficiently under-utilised.

[1 mark each for correctly identifying and explaining these concepts on the PPC]

- (c) 80 pastas – ratio of 1:2. If the fictional economy decided to produce 100 more pizzas, the benefit of producing 80 pastas must be forgone. This is because the PPC is linear, and the economy is now using more of its resources. All points on the PPC involve a *trade-off* between the production of pastas and the production of pizzas. If the economy produces 100 more pizzas, the benefit of producing 80 pastas must be forgone. The opportunity cost of producing an additional 100 pizzas is 80 pastas.

[1 mark for correct answer]

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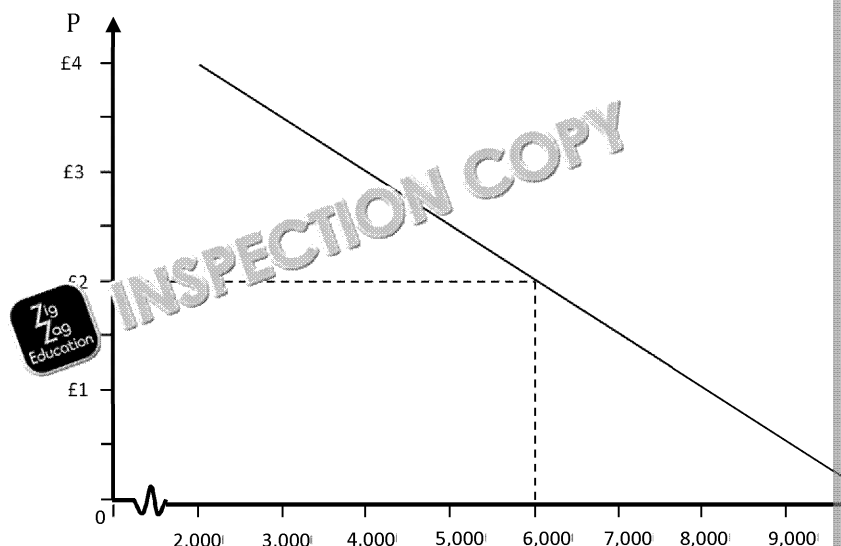
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4.1.3.1–2 Demand

1. (a)



[1 mark for correctly labelled axes and demand curve; 1 mark for downward-sloping demand curve passing through the coordinates in Table 1]

(b) $\% \text{ Change in } Q_D = \frac{\text{Original } Q_D}{\text{New } Q_D} \times 100 = \frac{4,000}{8,000} \times 100 = 50\%$

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 additional mark for working]

2. Intuitively, it seems obvious that demand should be downward-sloping. Whenever the price of an item falls, we would expect the quantity demanded of such an item to rise, and vice versa. Hence, there is an inverse relationship between price and quantity of product demanded. For demand is subject to a 'real income' effect. When the price of an item falls, the real income of a consumer would have after purchasing that item increases. This would tend to reduce disposable income. Therefore, we would expect demand to be less at high prices. The 'substitution' effect. When the price of a certain good would encourage consumers to purchase more of it. So, the demand for an item is lower the higher its price.

[1 mark for stating each effect that explains the inverse relationship between price and quantity demanded (income effect and substitution effect) and 1 mark for explanation of each]

3. Possible factors shifting the demand curve for Kopi Luwak coffee could include a change in the price of the good (it is likely to be a *normal* good), an increase in the price of a substitute good (e.g. the price of a complement good (e.g. milk), and a general shift in consumer preferences (because of advertising, due to a health trend, etc.).

[Maximum 3 marks. 1 mark for each suitable factor that could shift the demand curve. 1 mark for each shift in either direction are appropriate. Do not award marks for changes in the price of the good.]

4. (a) Price elasticity of demand (PED) is the sensitivity, or responsiveness, of demand to a change in the service's price level.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of PED: 1 mark for an explanation that is less than a general meaning]

(b) $PED = \frac{\% \text{ Change in the Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ Change in the Price}}$

[2 marks for correct formula for PED; award only 1 mark if formula is defined in terms of percentage change; no marks if numerator and denominator are opposite to each other]

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5. (a) $C - PED = \frac{\% \text{ Change in the Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ Change in the Price}} = \frac{-10\%}{40\%} = -0.25$

Therefore, the PED of petrol is inelastic. PED is *inelastic* if the calculated value (in absolute terms), it is perfectly inelastic if PED=0. Conversely, PED is elastic if PED=1.

[1 mark for correct response]

(b) A – Increase.

[1 mark for correct response]

6. (a) Income elasticity of demand (YED) is the sensitivity, or responsiveness, of demand to a change in income.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of YED; 1 mark for an explanation that is less general meaning]

(b) $YED = \frac{\% \text{ Change in the Quantity Demanded}}{\% \text{ Change in Income}} = \frac{-60\%}{15\%} = -4.00$ (i.e. Spam is an 'inferior' good)

[1 mark for correct answer; 1 mark for showing working]

7. (a) Cross elasticity of demand (XED) is the sensitivity, or responsiveness, of demand for one good in response to a change in some other good or service's price level.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of XED; 1 mark for an explanation that is less general meaning]

(b) $XED = \frac{\% \text{ Change in the Quantity Demanded of Good X}}{\% \text{ Change in the Price of Good Y}}$

[2 marks for correct formula for XED; 1 mark if formula is defined in terms of percentage change; no marks for numerator and denominator are opposite to each other]

8. 'Inferior' goods are goods whose YED is negative – that is, when incomes rise, the demand for the good falls. Inferior goods have YED < 0. Inferior goods, for example, instant noodles. 'Normal' goods are goods that show a positive relationship between income and consumption – most goods tend to be described as normal goods. Normal goods have a YED > 0.

[Up to 2 marks for an accurate description of an inferior and a normal good; up to 1 mark for using values of YED, examples, etc.]

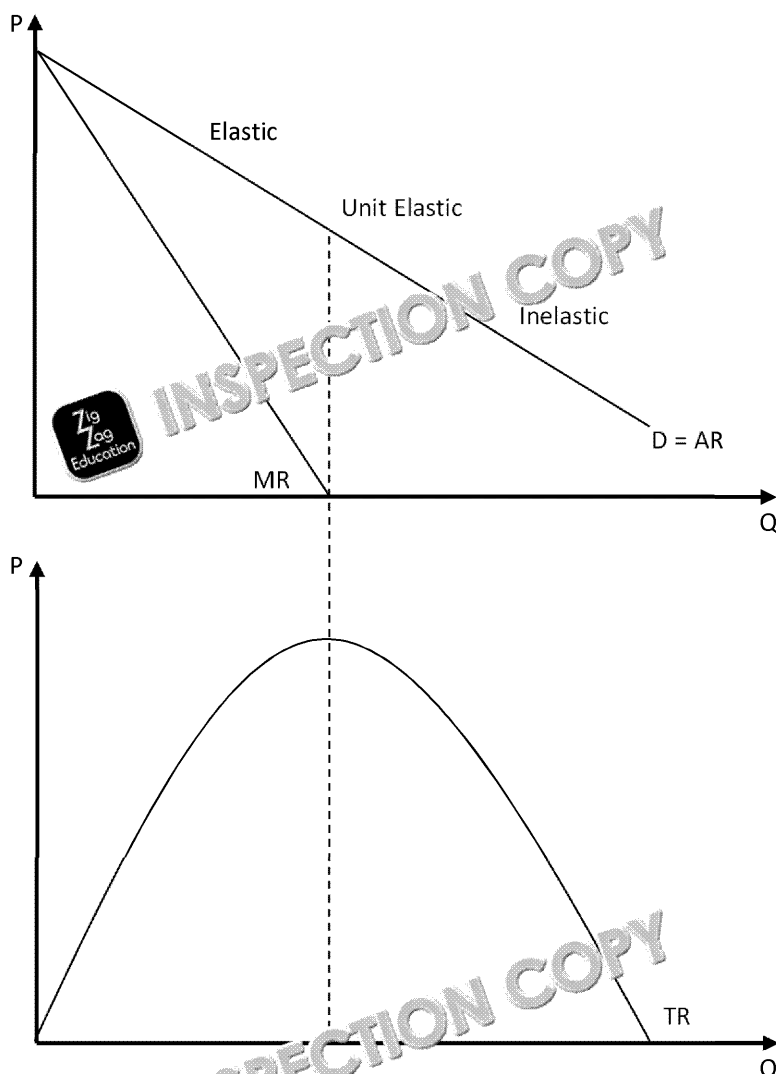
9. A – Coal and BBQs are said to be complements if they have an XED of -0.54. This means that a decrease in the price of coal leads to a decrease in the consumption of BBQs. Note that this relationship is an option for the fuel for a BBQ.

[1 mark for correct response]

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10.



Notice that the price elasticity of demand varies along a straight line demand curve. In the upper half of the demand curve the price is *high*, while the quantity demanded *low*, so a *percentage* change in price is large, but the associated change in quantity demanded would be large. In the lower half of the demand curve the price is *low*, while the quantity demanded is *high*, so a *percentage* change in price is small, but the associated change in quantity demanded would be large. The upper half of the demand curve is elastic, and the bottom half inelastic. Note that at the point of unit elasticity the price elasticity of demand will be *unit-elastic*.

If demand is price elastic, the firm can reduce its price but enjoy a disproportionate increase in its revenue. If demand is price inelastic, the firm can increase its price and increase its revenue. However, once demand is unit elastic, an increase or decrease in price will decrease total revenue. Hence, total revenue is maximised when price and quantity demanded are at unit elasticity. Notice that this is also the point at which marginal revenue is zero. Any further increase in price would lead to *negative* marginal revenue and so total revenue would decrease, and any further decrease in price would also reduce total revenue because the marginal revenue of increasing price would be *positive*.

[Maximum 4 marks. 2 marks for explaining the relationship between a firm's PED and its TR, and 2 marks for a diagram.]

11. PED is influenced by...

- **Availability of Substitutes:** If there are suitable substitutes available for a product, demand will be more elastic. Explanation of this relationship is that an increase in the price of a product will shift their consumption away from it to a relatively cheaper good, thus increasing the quantity demanded. However, the degree of elasticity will depend on how close the substitutes are to the original product.
- **Necessity:** If a product is a necessity then an increase in the price of the item will have a small effect on the demand. These are products that are not thought of as necessities (e.g. foreign holidays, luxury goods) and so changes in price because there are alternatives available.
- **Proportion of Income Devoted to the Good:** If the cost of an item constitutes a high proportion of a consumer's overall expenditure, then a small increase in its price is likely to have a large effect on the quantity demanded – that is, items that take up a larger share of our disposable income are more elastic.
- **Time Period:** In the short-run, demand tends to be inelastic because people have commitments to consumption, and so changes in price don't tend to affect demand. In the long-run, people have time to change their patterns of consumption in response to price changes.

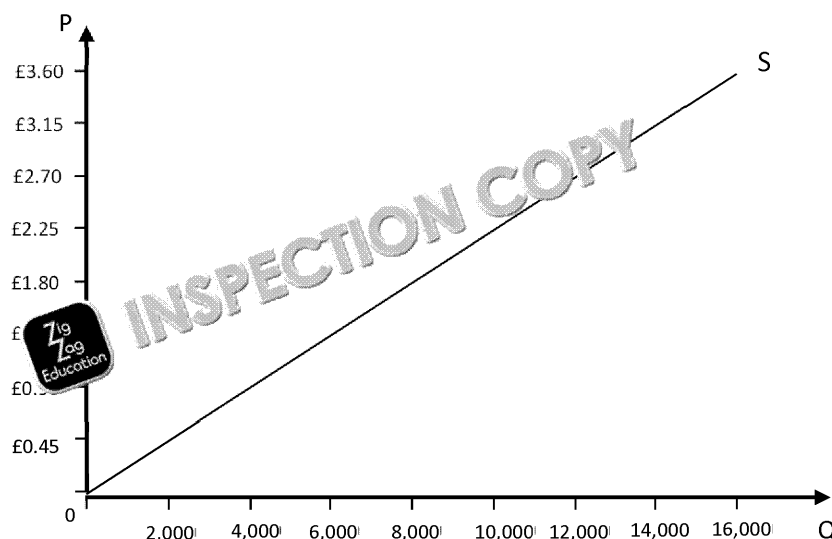
[1 mark each for identify an appropriate factor; 1 mark each for suitable explanation]

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4.1.3.3–4 Supply

1. (a)



[1 mark for correctly labelled axes and supply curve; 1 mark for upward-sloping curve passing through the coordinates in Table 1]

(b) Supply is upward-sloping and directly proportional to price, meaning that there is a direct relationship between price and quantity.

[1 mark for correct observation]

2. It is suggested that supply is upward-sloping for the following reasons. First, if the price of a product is high, it implies that it is more profitable for a business to sell its products. Therefore, firms expand their output – that is, they supply more to the market when the price is high. Second, as production expands the marginal cost of production tends to increase because of diminishing returns. Therefore, at greater levels of output, prices need to be higher to mitigate the high marginal cost. The relationship between price and quantity supplied is reflected by movements along the supply curve.

[1 mark for identifying each reason; 1 mark for each explanation]

3.

(a)	Assuming that the West Country orchard's business objective is profit maximisation, changes in its cost structure will have an effect on the supply curve. Here, the use of new technology that is more efficient than the manual human labour used in the past, means that this technology is to reduce the unit costs of production by reducing labour costs. The supply curve for the West Country orchard shifts rightwards (outwards) – because they are prepared to provide more at any given price.
(b)	Subsidies are grants from the government that are designed to increase the profitability of a business. A subsidy this essentially offsets their costs of production. Again, this means that the West Country orchard will be able to provide a greater quantity of output at any given price. The orchard's supply curve will shift rightward (outwards). (Note, it shifts rightward by the amount of the subsidy.)
(c)	If the price of pears increases relative to the price of apples the West Country orchard will switch production to pears because pears are currently more profitable. This is because the farming technique for these agricultural products are more or less the same. Pears and apples are in the same supply (substitutes). Hence, we can expect the supply of pears to increase when the price of a competitive good increases. (Note, an evaluation of the long time to grow a pear tree, so the West Country orchard are not able to increase their production in the short-run.)
(d)	Increases in the National Living Wage constitute an increase in the cost of production for the West Country orchard. Even if this firm doesn't hire anybody that is earning the minimum wage, an increase in it causes upward pressure on all wages. Whenever a business faces an increase in its costs, it will supply less at any given price because it is less profitable to do so than before. The West Country orchard's supply curve would shift inward if this change occurred.

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(e)	If bio-fuel made from by-products of the orchard's production process are fetching a high price, the effect on the orchard's supply curve could go either way. First, they might stop supplying whole apples altogether and supply bio-fuel instead leading to an inward shift of the supply curve. However, they might also increase the production of apples and just sell their by-products to firms creating an outward shift. The overall effect is ambiguous.
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Knowledge (3), application (3) and analysis (3)		
	0	No relevant answer given.
Level 1	1–3	A few concepts may be identified correctly, but inconsistently, and with inaccurate thought behind the causes and effects.
Level 2	4–6	Some knowledge of economic concepts is shown, partially linked to the question, but reasoning skills, but may focus too much on one side of an argument.
Level 3	7–9	Knowledge of the economic concepts is very accurate. Links to the question are clear and relevant examples. Analysis is well reasoned and logical, and appropriate for the question.
Evaluation (6)		
	0	No evaluation given.
Level 1	1–2	Little or no attempt at evaluation – may be only loosely related to the question, or no supporting reasoning.
Level 2	3–4	Clear evidence of evaluative comments, though they may be unfairly weighted or biased. Reasoning / supporting evidence is provided but may be incomplete.
Level 3	5–6	Accurate, balanced evaluative comments are made, supporting a rounded conclusion that pertains directly to the question.

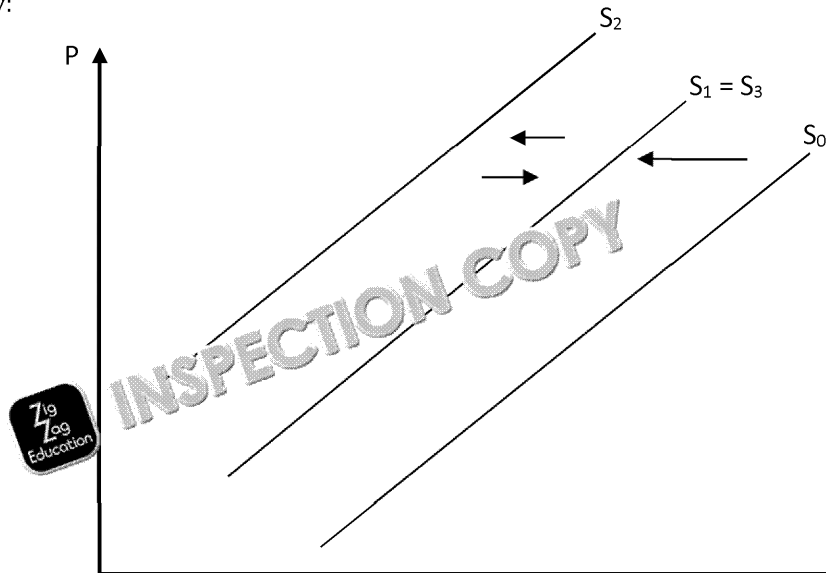
[1 mark for identifying the direction of the shift; 2 additional marks for a strong explanation, or 1 mark for a weaker argument that still conveys the correct meaning]

4. There is a lot of information in the extract that will affect the position of the supply curve in the traditional Californian farmers' produce. First, the price of almonds has incentivised traditional production from row crops to orchards. This is evidenced by the fact that the almond industry's production has increased from half a million pounds (lbs.) to approximately 2 billion pounds today. Therefore, the supply curve for traditional produce would be reflected by a *leftward* shift in the traditional market's supply curve as the number of farmers decreases and shift production to the more profitable almond production.

Moreover, there has been a drought in California for the past few years. Unfortunately for traditional farmers when there are droughts they don't get allocated much water by the State because they don't have the infrastructure to store water during that period. Almond trees, however, have to be fed water regardless of the environment – in fact, they are allocated a huge 8% of the entire State's water resources. Therefore, traditional farmers that wish to continue producing row crops must spend more on purchasing water during these drought periods. This would increase the cost of production for traditional farmers meaning at any given price for their produce they would be willing to supply less. Again, the supply curve has shifted left.

However, there is a little evidence that these farmers are getting more efficient. Technology reduces costs by reducing purchases of excess inputs. This effect could (partially) offset the cost increase because of the Californian drought. Therefore, the adoption of new technology would shift the supply curve to the right. The overall effect on the position of the supply curve will ultimately depend on whether the benefits of this technology outweigh the cost increases of the Californian drought. In the diagram, S_0 represents the initial position of supply in the traditional produce market, S_1 represents the position of the supply curve after farmers have shifted towards almond production, S_2 is the position of the supply curve after the Californian drought, while S_3 is the movement after technology has been adopted. S_3 could be placed anywhere in the diagram so long as it moves in the rightward direction – the magnitude of the shift depends on judgement. **In this case it has been drawn such as if the adoption of technology has completely offset the cost increases in the price of water.**

Graphically:



[2 marks for the diagram, plus 2 additional marks for the linking explanation]

5. (a) Price elasticity of supply (PES) is the sensitivity, or responsiveness, of supply to a change in the service's price level.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of PES; 1 mark for an explanation that is less general meaning]

- (b)
$$PES = \frac{\% \text{ Change in the Quantity Supply}}{\% \text{ Change in the Price}}$$

[2 marks for correct formula for PES; award 1 mark if formula is defined as percentage change; no marks if numerator and denominator are opposite to each other]

6. A music streaming service will be almost perfectly elastic in the short-run. This is because the service is set up in a way that the provider will incur very few additional costs per unit, mainly fixed costs.

[1 mark for 'almost perfectly elastic'; 1 mark for explanation]

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4.1.3.5–6 Price Determination in a Competitive Market

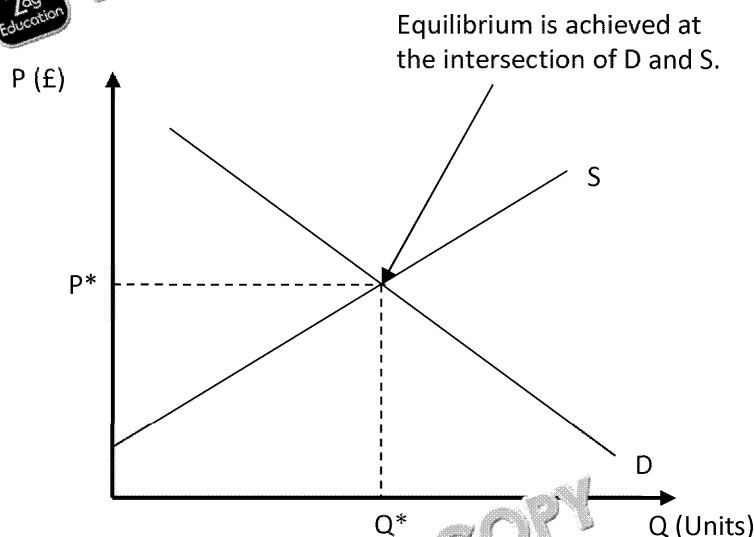
1. (a) A market is a place (real or nominal) where buyers and sellers interact to exchange goods and services.

[1 mark for correct definition]

- (b) Market equilibrium refers to the situation in which the market price level is such that the quantity demanded and supply are balanced – that is, at this single equilibrium price, the quantity demanded exactly equals the quantity supplied by producers.

[1 mark for correct definition. Note, responses must involve the concept of a market clearing price. Students need to use correct terminology]

- (c)



[2 marks for correctly drawing a demand and supply diagram (with correct labels for the axes, the demand and supply curves, and the equilibrium point); 1 mark for correctly identifying the equilibrium price and quantity (i.e. P^* and Q^*)]

2. C – If demand decreases – that is, a *leftward* shift – then the equilibrium market price will fall and the equilibrium quantity will contract (a movement down the supply curve).

[1 mark for correct response]

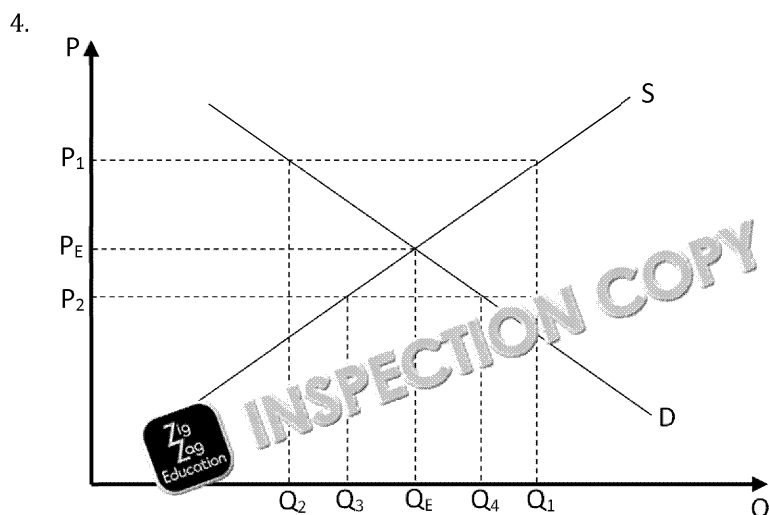
- 3.
- Initially, a demand shock brought about by a change in preferences for cagoules over supply at the initial price of P_1 , which was originally determined by the intersection of the original supply curve, S_1 , and the demand curve, D_1 .
 - However, at P_1 the market price will be below the market-clearing (equilibrium) price determined by the intersection of the original supply curve, S_1 , and the new demand curve, D_2 .
 - If demand exceeds supply, there are too many buyers chasing a limited number of goods. In order to tempt suppliers to extend their supply, each buyer offers little more than the market price. Thus, the change in preferences of consumers is transmitted to producers. In the short run, there is a shortage of supply, and so they know that they can afford to increase the price in order to improve profitability.
 - This process is continued until eventually the price has bid up to the market-clearing price, P_2 , and a contraction along the new demand curve, D_2 , occurs. This is necessarily a contraction of quantity demanded because the increase in price will be too high for them to pay – they will reduce the quantity demanded – this is the ‘rationing’ function of prices. At P_2 , the market is balanced and there is no excess of demand over supply – that is, the market has reached a new equilibrium.

[Maximum 4 marks. 3–4 marks for a strong, well-supported answer explaining the forces that will bring about microeconomic equilibrium for cagoules. 1–2 marks for a weak answer or process but lacking detail.]

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Equilibrium is *only* achieved at the intersection of a market's demand and supply which demand exactly equals supply and there is no shortage or excess of either 'clearing' price. At P_E there is an associated equilibrium quantity of Q_E .

Disequilibrium occurs at *any* price other than the market-clearing price P_E . Diagram price of P_1 , which is greater than the market-clearing price P_E . At P_1 there will be and too few demanded/sold (Q_2) – i.e. the price is too high. Quantity Q_2Q_1 would be too low at P_2 – fewer would be produced (Q_3) than demanded (Q_4). In this case, the as Q_3Q_4 simply wouldn't be produced.

[Up to 2 marks for accurately drawn diagram(s), including correctly labelled curve disequilibrium; 2 marks for a clear distinction between equilibrium and disequilibrium that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

5. If the price of Frisbees is P_1 this implies that the market is in disequilibrium because the clearing price is P^* . At P_1 the supply of Frisbees is greater than the market clearing at some level less than Q^* because consumers don't want to purchase as much as Intuitively, this makes sense as when prices are high firms tend to supply more in response to consumers demand. Therefore, because of real income and substitution effects. Therefore, the excess supply must reduce their price so that more of their product is consumed. The price will stabilise at P^* and the quantity at Q^* where demand and supply are equal.

[1 mark for recognising that the market for Frisbees is in disequilibrium; 1 mark for the price to fall to reach its equilibrium rate; 1 mark for explanation. Maximum 3 marks for correct response]

6. **C** – Joint demand refers to goods for which demand is interdependent, such that the demand for one good is dependent on the demand for another good. [1 mark for correct response]

7. **A** – Composite demand refers to demand for an item that has multiple uses (e.g. electricity can be used to power plastic, generate energy, and power motor vehicles, etc., so its demand is a composite demand). [1 mark for correct response]

8. **A** – Competitive demand refers to the demand for goods that are in competition (e.g. Coca-Cola and Pepsi are notorious competitors, so when the demand for Coca-Cola increases, the demand for Pepsi decreases). [1 mark for correct response]

9. **B** – Derived demand refers to the demand for factor inputs is a form of derived demand because it is derived from the demand for the final product. [1 mark for correct response]

10. **A** – Joint supply refers to a situation in which a firm produces a number of products from the same production process – e.g. a firm might produce a by-product as part of the production process. [1 mark for correct response]

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4.1.4 Production, Costs and Revenue

- Figure 1 shows that there has been a marked difference in levels of productivity per hour – between the UK and Ireland from 2010 onwards. While the UK's productivity has increased slightly, Ireland's productivity has increased dramatically. Ireland's productivity in 2016 is 0.9% greater than the UK's, however, is only 0.9% greater.

Labour productivity has an effect on unit labour cost (ULC) by altering the total output of labour input. Therefore, Ireland's ULC in 2016 should be lower than the UK's, as Ireland uses labour input more efficiently. Ultimately this means that Ireland's cost of production is lower on average and so this should influence the price of Irish products relative to the UK, meaning that Irish products should be cheaper than UK products because its costs of production are lower. Irish firms are more competitive in international markets than UK firms, and in export markets should deteriorate on the basis of this information.

However, an important problem in this analysis is that the effect will depend on the initial productivity of the UK and Ireland. Since ULC is measured by the total cost of labour divided by total output, the effect will depend on the initial total cost of labour. If Ireland's labour cost was significantly higher than the UK's with then it is not guaranteed that an increase in productivity will make Irish exports competitive with the UK's.

[Maximum 4 marks for a clear analysis of the impact on the UK of changing levels of productivity. For an adequate analysis, might be underdeveloped or lacking in detail]

- Specialisation occurs when an individual, business, or nation state concentrates the production of a single, or limited number, of good(s).

[1 mark for correct answer]

- From Table 1 it is immediately obvious that Adam is better at producing both goods. In fact, if Adam dedicated himself to producing vans he could make 36 per annum, and if he dedicated his production to cars then he could also produce 36 per annum, which is his maximum output.

It might seem like there is little reason for Adam to trade with Karl given that Adam can produce both vans and cars. However, this doesn't mean that there cannot be trade between these individuals.

It's important to note that Adam can only specialise in one or the other, and focus on the thing that they are better at. That Adam necessarily has to sacrifice some cars. It would be in everyone's best interests for Adam to specialise in the thing that they are better at.

If Adam wants to produce one more car, he must sacrifice one van, and *vice versa* if he wants to produce one more van he must sacrifice one car. Therefore, the opportunity cost (in terms of vans) of producing cars is lower than that of Karl's, meaning Adam should specialise in car production. Karl should specialise in producing vans because his opportunity cost is higher.

If Adam and Karl specialise and trade, they will both be better off – producing 36 of each good, a situation without specialisation and trade because *more* of both goods can be produced.

[1 mark for identifying that both Adam and Karl will be better off with specialisation and trade. For explanation]

- Adam Smith's observation is that through specialisation and *division of labour*, the productivity of workers is increased if workers hadn't specialised.

Specialisation improves productivity because workers are able to practise and become more efficient at a few tasks rather than *all* tasks. Specialised workers might also develop specialised tools. There is also no time wasted moving between different parts of the production process. Therefore, the division of labour can allow more to be produced given limited factor inputs had.

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It is clear, therefore, that specialisation can address the basic economic problem to satisfy a *greater* number of infinite wants – e.g. specialisation in a pin factory more than 100 pins being made using the same factor inputs.

However, specialisation could result in lower productivity for a number of reasons. Workers could become bored and/or demotivated and their productivity would decline as a result. Secondly, if a worker is highly specialised a problem at one stage of production could prevent any further production. Therefore, specialisation could also exacerbate the basic economic problem if not managed properly.

[Maximum 4 marks. 1 mark for identifying the argument that specialisation improves productivity and 3 marks for a clear explanation including an example against the first point]

5. Primarily, in a barter system, money trade *only* occurs if there is a *double coincidence of wants*, meaning that each individual is offering the other individual something that they want. Money is a standardised medium of exchange that serves as an intermediary for trade. Money facilitates trade because in a barter system it wouldn't be possible to trade a chicken for five chickens.

Note that a number of different responses that focus on the functions (and/or characteristics) of money are acceptable. However, students must reflect on how these functions facilitate trade.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of how money facilitates trade compared to a barter system; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which conveys the general meaning]

6. In economics, the short- and long-run are distinguished in terms of the variability of factors of production. In the short-run it is said that the quantity of *at least one* factor of production is fixed, while in the long-run all factors of production are free to be varied by the firm. However, in the long-run *all* factors of production are variable. In the long-run firms are more 'flexible' and can adjust to changing market conditions. For example, in the short-run production such as labour is more variable than capital – e.g. firms can fairly easily hire more workers or have their workforce work overtime, but it's far more difficult to build a new factory in the short-run.

[2 marks for a clear distinction between the short- and long-run; 1 mark for a distinction that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

7. Economies of scale refer to the process through which increasing the scale of production results in lower per-unit costs.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of economies of scale; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

8. **B** – Internal economies of scale are those economies of scale that are achieved through the expansion of the individual firm. Conversely, external economies of scale refers to economies of scale achieved by an entire industry and so **A** cannot be correct. **C** and **D** refer to diseconomies of scale where unit costs as production scales up.

[1 mark for correct answer]

9. Internal economies of scale can include: *technical economies of scale; purchasing economies of scale; financial economies of scale; marketing economies of scale; risk economies of scale; network economies of scale.*

Purchasing Economies of Scale (EoS), for instance, refers to businesses being able to purchase goods at discounted prices because it is purchasing such large quantities in order to maintain its production. Utilities are often discounted for businesses that need much electricity or water, so they can purchase these items at reduced price than what they buy.

[1 mark for identifying an appropriate cause of internal economies of scale; 1 mark for a clear explanation of an external economy of scale]

10. (a) External economies of scale are those economies of scale that are achieved through the expansion of an entire industry, rather than the individual firm, and the expansion tends to result in lower per-unit costs.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of external economies of scale; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but conveys the general meaning]

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- (b) Examples of external economies of scale include, but are not limited to: *infrastructure investments (both transport and communication); provision of research and development; provision of industry-specific training; relocation of suppliers to better service the industry; economies (e.g. clustering).*

Infrastructure investments, for instance, might be provided by the government for an expanding industry. It should be clear that *all* firms in the industry will benefit from this investment.

[1 mark for identifying an appropriate example of external economies of scale; 1 mark for identifying a reason for external economies of scale]

11. Primarily, economies of scale benefits a business because it helps them decrease their costs. Firms that are positioned to make higher profits when their costs decrease. Firms that are able to invest this profit into research and development and allows them to produce even more efficiently, thus 'multiplying' this effect. Companies that achieve the same level of economies of scale will lag behind those that are positioned to make investments in advertising and marketing their product too, thus increasing their sales and contributing to profit. However, economies of scale could lead to lower quality products if the production process is not properly managed.

[Maximum 4 marks. 2 marks each for correctly identifying two benefits of EoS to a business and a reason/explanation of each benefit.]

12. First, note that a firm's average revenue is simply total revenue divided by output. This can be interpreted as the (average) price per unit of output. Second, remember that a firm's demand curve is the relationship between price and quantity demanded over a range of output. Notice that the demand curve and average revenue curve are exactly the same in the table; therefore, a firm's demand and average revenue curves are identical. Both show an inverse relationship between price and quantity.

[2 marks for a clear explanation of the relationship between a firm's average revenue and its demand curve; 1 mark for an explanation that is less clear but which covers the general meaning]

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